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Vol. 65, No. 8, Pages 73-80

February 28, 1984

Physical Properties of Rocks

8100 Elasticity, fracture, and flow

8101 BIOCERICAL CRACK GROWTH IN GEOLOGICAL MATERIALS

A. S. Atkinson (Geology Department, Imperial College, London, United Kingdom)

A review is presented of the experimental data on subcritical crack growth in geological materials. The main parameters describing subcritical crack growth are the crack tip intensity factor (K_c), the subcritical crack growth law, the crack tip velocity (V_c), the intrinsic fracture velocity (V_f), and the relationship between K_c and V_c . The K_c - V_c data are presented in terms of an equation in which the crack velocity depends on stress intensity. The crack tip velocity is discussed in terms of its precision in experimental studies. The data are presented as tables and in synoptic diagrams. For a given crack tip intensity, the value of V_c increases as the environment becomes more ductile, and decreases when it becomes more brittle. The subcritical crack growth law is of the form $V_c = V_0 + K_c$, where V_0 is a low or zero value found for brittle cracking and for aqueous environments, and as high as 170 for tensile cracking in dry, brittle, low- K_c materials. Insufficient experimental data are available to predict subcritical crack growth behavior at depths to the bottom of the ocean. Without taking extrapolations of the data from the surface, it is difficult to predict the influence of the probable influence on subcritical crack growth of such parameters as the stress intensity factor, temperature, pressure, and rate of loading. The crack tip velocity, crack structure, and residual strains. In addition, the relationship is presented of the likely magnitude of the subcritical crack growth law. For seismic rupture, the subcritical crack growth law is of the form $V_c = V_0 + K_c$, where V_0 is the third derivative of the crack tip velocity with respect to stress intensity. The value of V_0 is inferred from theoretical calculations. Further problems arise with regard to the extrapolation of experimental data to depths of 10 km. The choice of a suitable equation to describe the crack tip velocity and the magnitude of the crack tip velocity in shear modulus are of great importance. The double torsion testing method is presented in order to measure the subcritical crack growth rate because it is a simple, safe method used to study subcritical cracking in rocks, soils, and concrete, fracture mechanics, extrapolation to natural environments, and the like.

J. Geophys. Res., 81, Paper 48019

Seismology

8102 Body Waves

8103 FREQUENCY-DEPENDENT BACKSCATTERING AND ATTENUATION

A. R. Dickey (School of Geophysical Sciences, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia 30332)

The propagation of the backscattered intensity of seismic waves, single, scattered from a region containing fluctuations in the seismic velocity, has been derived for high frequencies by assuming a correlation of the slowness fluctuations in a Taylor series expansion. The width of the transform function is proportional to the wavelength. The resulting expression indicates that the backscattered intensity is independent of frequency and directly proportional to the first derivative of the autocorrelation at zero lag of the heterogeneity. The backscattered intensity is proportional to the third derivative of the autocorrelation at zero lag. Contributions from terms of the Taylor series involving even numbered derivatives of the autocorrelation function are negligible. The results are smooth at zero lag, this result demonstrating that backscattered high frequencies can occur from fluctuations of velocity. The derivatives are expressed in terms of the backscattered intensity. The backscattered intensity is independent of frequency and proportional to the first derivative of the autocorrelation at zero lag. This behavior may have been observed in the propagation of seismic waves. Acoustic scattering at frequencies greater than 1 Hz, suggesting that scattering of seismic waves is an important part of the seismic attenuation.

J. Geophys. Res., 81, Paper 48019

The Oceanography Report



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The focal point for physical, chemical, geological, and biological oceanographers.

Editor: Arnold L. Gordon, Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory, Palisades, NY 10561 (telephone 914-350-2900, ext. 325).

Lagrangian Studies of Deep Ocean Currents

T. Rossby

It is now more than 10 years since the first experiment using subsurface drifters (so-called Sofar floats) took place in the Mid-Ocean Dynamics Experiment (Mode). Since then they have been applied in a series of exploratory studies culminating in the Polymode Local Dynamics Experiment (LDE), and more recently along 35°W in a study of the North Atlantic subtropical gyre in a region well removed from the dynamics of western boundary regions. These neutrally buoyant instruments, which can be ballasted to drift with the water at pressures up to 2000 dbars (meters), are tracked acoustically over long periods of time (months to years). Conceptually the floats may be thought of as large molecules, fluid parcels whose pathways and speeds are explicitly known. The structure of their trajectories often yields surprisingly detailed information on the horizontal structure of the velocity field. When used in clusters they can tell us much about the mean field and the dispersive properties of the region. This article provides a brief retrospective of what we have learned in the 10 years since their first application in Mode. We begin with a brief description of the Sofar float technology.

Tracking Sofar floats over great horizontal distances is possible thanks to a remarkable acoustic property of the ocean known as the deep ocean sound channel or Sofar (sound fixing and ranging) channel. This acoustic waveguide, well known to acousticians and submariners since World War II, owes its existence to the happy fact that the speed of sound is a strong and computable function of oceanic pressures and temperatures. In the upper ocean the speed of sound decreases rapidly with depth due to the thermal stratification; in the deep, nearly isothermal waters the speed of sound increases with pressure. The minimum speed of sound, about 1000-1300 m/s in the subtropical oceans is the axis of a permanent acoustic waveguide such that under quiet listening conditions one can hear a 1-W sound source at 250 Hz at distances greater than 1000 km.

The first suggestion to use the Sofar channel to track neutrally buoyant drifters was made by H. Stommel in 1949 in a paper on horizontal diffusion. In 1966 M. J. Tucker and D. C. Webb conducted an encouraging test of long-range transmission using a lightweight piezoelectric transducer, and in October 1967 a neutrally buoyant float was tracked for 4 months. But it was another 8 years before float could be put to use systematically.

Today's variety of float consists of an aluminum flotation tube, 0.3 m in diameter and 5.5 m in length, which also provides the housing for the battery pack and electronics. The transducer, a thin-walled tube 1.8 m long and of the same diameter, is open at one end and has a piezoelectric transducer plate at the other. It is mounted end-to-end to the flotation tube.

Acoustic signals are transmitted every 8 hours; each signal consists of an 812-FM pulse (1.5 Hz linear chirp) at 250 Hz. Besides giving a better signal-to-noise ratio than the previously used amplitude modulated system, the phase modulation allows the use of simple digital correlators for signal detection and time of arrival determination. The radiated power levels have increased approximately from 3 W to 8 W, permitting tracking ranges out to 2500 km depending on the float's depth in the sound channel, and ambient noise conditions at the receiver site.

The floats are equipped with an active ballasting system to maintain a prescribed depth,

and telemetry of pressure and temperature. They are powered to last in excess of 2 years [Webb, 1977]. The early development of the Sofar float program was greatly simplified by the existence of landbased hydrophones on Bermuda, the Bahamas, and Puerto Rico. Their availability reduced the risk and cost of the program by permitting us to concentrate on the major technological uncertainty: the float itself.

Tracking the floats is conceptually very simple: Given knowledge of the speed of sound in the ocean and the time of arrival of signals at two or more receivers, one can determine from the intercept of circles (known travel times) or hyperbolas (travel time differences) the position of a float to within a few kilometers. With the recent development of autonomous listening stations (ALS), which can be moored in the sound channel for a year at a time, Sofar float studies are no longer restricted to areas within range of landbased hydrophones. This has added great flexibility to their use.

There is no question that the most powerful attribute of drifters is the horizontal information that is so effortlessly provided—effortlessly in the sense that even a single instrument can suffice to lay bare the circular structure of a Gulf Stream Ring, show the path of the Gulf Stream as it is swept downstream, or reveal the constraints imposed on fluid motion by variable bathymetry. As they drift they in fact articulate specific pathways and rates of displacement of fluid parcels; information that cannot be obtained solely from the observed distribution of different water masses.

In what way would a tracer for a potential anthropogenic pollutant disperse, and how rapidly? The Sofar floats provide us with a natural tool to examine these kinds of questions. With an ensemble of trajectories one can start to construct statistical statements about mean flow and rates of dispersion and juxtapose these with classical water mass analysis. Let us attempt a simple illustration.

Between 1976 and 1980 we obtained nearly two dozen float trajectories at 700 m during 6 months or longer. They were set at various latitudes, mostly in the vicinity of 30°N. If one examines their position as a function of time one finds that the floats set north of 28°-30°N disperse to the west until north, become entrained into the Gulf Stream and are rapidly advected to the east. The ensemble of floats to the south of 28°N show evidence of a cyclonic circulation to the south and east.

In Figure 1 we show a sketch of the trajectories of floats at 700 m after they have been subjectively smoothed to remove mesoscale motions. It suggests that a tracer that is injected into the Gulf Stream recirculation system will be trapped and repeatedly recycled; it is not likely to be flushed to the south. We can compare this with the distribution of tritium (3H) along 35°W. Figure 2. Note that at 700 m the 3H does not penetrate south of 23°30'N, and in the deep waters it is restricted to latitudes north of 30°N.

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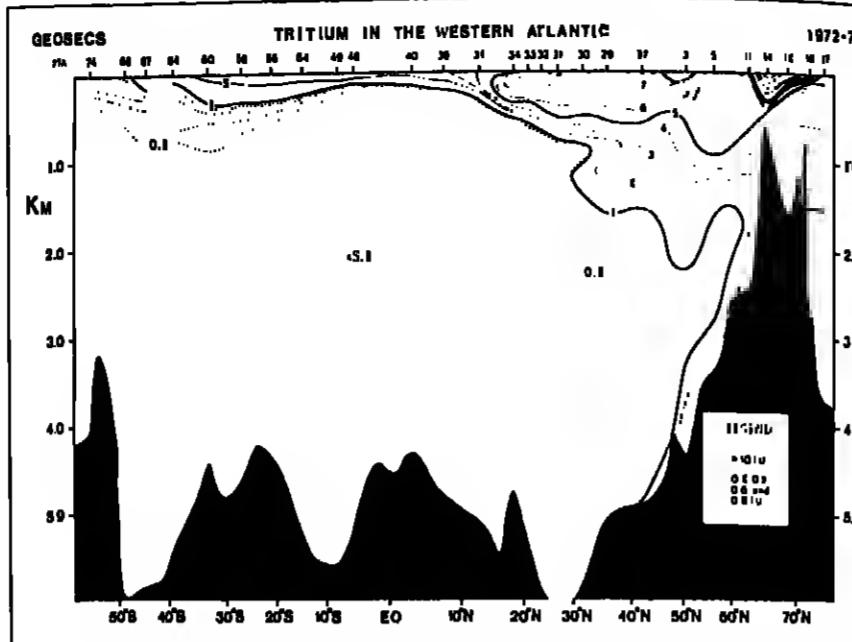


Fig. 2. Distribution of ^{3}H along a N-S section in the Western North Atlantic [Orlitz et al., 1977].

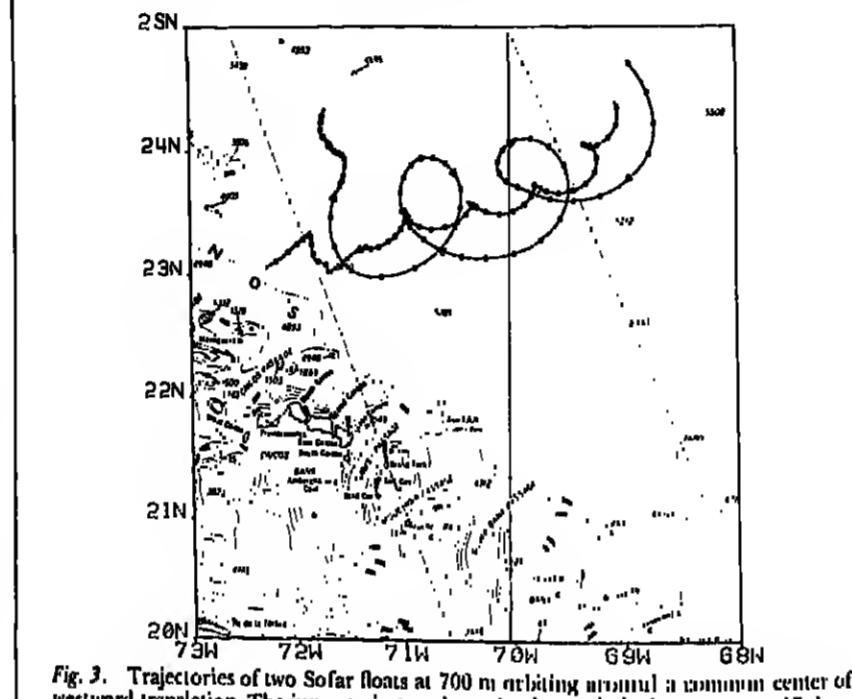


Fig. 3. Trajectories of two Sofar floats at 700 m orbiting around a common center of westward translation. The inner trajectory has a 10-day period, the outer one 17 days.

at the source or inflow conditions to the east of the section. This has not been done. The point here is that even 2 dozen trajectories can provide valuable path and dispersion information. The idea of using floats as an integral part of modern water mass analysis is, however, still in its infancy.

The dispersion of the floats can be used to estimate eddy diffusivities. On time scales of the order of months, dispersion of floats is dominated by mesoscale eddy processes, especially in regions of high eddy kinetic energy. Moreover, the diffusivity is apparently linearly related to eddy kinetic energy over a wide range corresponding to an integral time scale of about 8 days. The physical basis for this relationship is unclear, but it certainly provides a simple means of parameterizing mesoscale eddy mixing in numerical studies. Dispersion tends to be isotropic when eddy kinetic energy levels are high, whereas in qui-

et regions such as the center of the subtropical gyre there is a clear tendency toward zonal dispersion.

Other numerous neutrally buoyant floats have exhibited astonishingly circular orbits with diameters ranging from a few kilometers to nearly 150 km. These trajectories reveal a class of oceanic motion that, apart from the ubiquitous Gulf Stream rings, was not known 10 years ago. Spinning in either direction, these meanders can be found in shallow as well as deep waters. And almost without exception their zonal motion is toward the west.

Figure 4 shows the trajectories of two Sofar floats (a third one is omitted for clarity) near 700 m depth spinning around a westward-migrating body of water until it appears to collide with the Bahama escarpment (or a boundary current along 10°) and the floats escape. Hydrographic observations at the time the floats were set revealed a thin lens of somewhat diluted Mediterranean water about 600 m thick and 120 km in diameter.

Other observations of such lenses of Mediterranean water have been made in the eastern Atlantic. Assuming a westward migration velocity of 3 cm/s¹ from its region of probable formation, the "meedy," as it is sometimes referred to, must be at least 3 years old. With a mean period of revolution of 10 days, say, the lens must have made at least 100 revolutions since its genesis. Clearly the lenses are very stable, and as Figure 3 suggests, their demise may not be one of slow decay, but a sudden one due to changes in their environment, be it topographic "collisions" or their rupture by horizontal shear.

These lenses do not appear to have any atmospheric counterpart. What makes them particularly interesting is the suspicion that they may play an important role in the observed distribution of salt, oxygen, and other tracers in the ocean. Created in the east (it is not known how), they propagate zonally to the west and "deposit" the transported waters where they collapse. This suggests the possibility that observed distributions of water properties in some sense represent the probability density distribution of disintegration of these lenses and not solely a balance between a large-scale mean flow (to be determined) and eddy mixing, as is often assumed in diagnostic studies of ocean circulation.

Conservation statements of the form $\frac{d}{dt}(\rho) = 0$ are intrinsically Lagrangian concepts where the property denoted by the asterisk remains invariant under translation of the fluid. The above mentioned "meedy" is, of

course, one example of fluid conservation. A corresponding dynamical test, namely the conservation of potential vorticity, has also been demonstrated.

Following a set of 10 Sofar floats for 2 months at 1300 m, Price and Rossby [1982] found that as the cluster moved north such that the local vertical component of planetary angular momentum increases, the cluster responds by turning in the opposite (or clockwise) direction so that its absolute angular momentum is conserved, and conversely so when they moved to the south [Figures 4a and 4b]. For good numerical agreement it was found necessary to include vortex stretching caused by variable bathymetry.

Horizontal arrays of Sofar floats have been used effectively to produce synoptic analyses of the velocity field. In both Mode and the Polymode LDE the systematic combination of velocity measurements at one level and hydrographic surveys have been used to analyze the dynamic state and evolution of the mesoscale eddy field. This methodology works well, but the rapid dispersion of floats limits to a few weeks the time during which accurate synoptic maps of the stream function can be constructed. The longevity of the Sofar floats is of no help here; thus, for future studies of this kind there may be a need for a simple, low-cost Sofar float of medium range of the kind used in the French Tourbillon experiment [Groupe Tourbillon, 1983]. For a more detailed discussion of the above ideas the reader is encouraged to consult chapters 4 and 5 in Robinson [1982].

Sofar floats are now in use in four experiments in the North Atlantic: The URI-WHOI Line and Gulf Stream Recirculation Experiments, Dispersion Studies in Very Energetic Eddy Fields (WHOI), Topogulf (a French program), and a nascent British study of dispersion in very deep waters. The technology is mature and reliable. The inability to track the floats in real time, however, has handicapped experimental plans to use floats interactively (for example in hydrographic surveys). This has stimulated a program called Relays [WHOI] to develop listening systems which are suspended down into the sound channel from drifting surface platforms. Tracking data can thus be relayed immediately to ARGOS (a satellite-based platform location and data collection system).

At present long-range tracking is limited to oceans with permanent thermoclines where acoustic energy is trapped by refraction only. However, I believe it is possible to extend the technique to cold oceans with so-called half sound channels, i.e., where rays undergo surface reflection. For this to work,

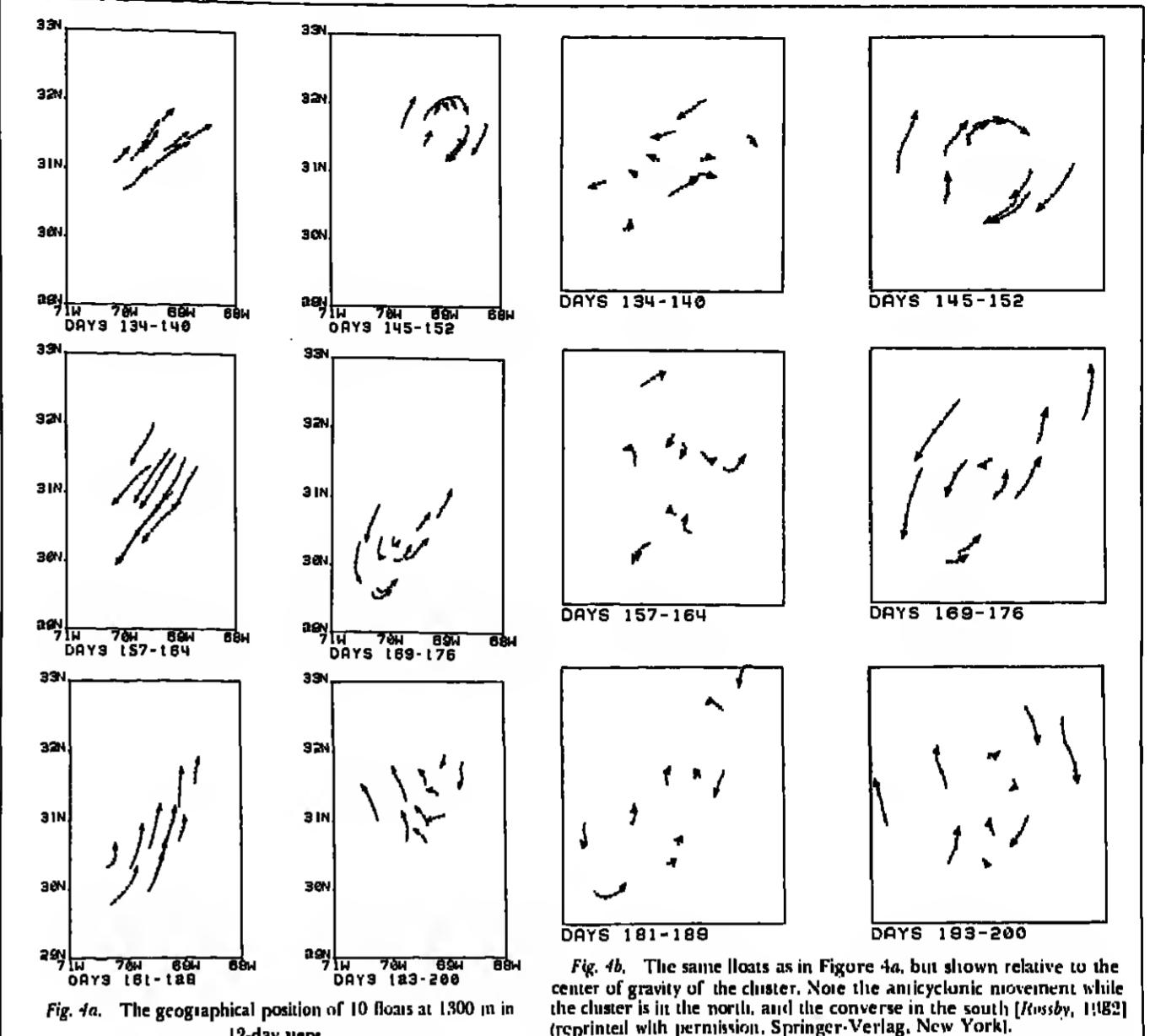


Fig. 4a. The geographical position of 10 floats at 1300 m in 12-day steps.

however, it is necessary to work at much lower frequencies such that the acoustic wavelength is long compared to the sea surface roughness. The way to do this would presumably be to reverse the entire procedure and place on continental slopes very low frequency sound sources powered from shore (in which case the acoustic power levels can be greatly increased). The floats then travel and store the time of arrival information for later transmission to ARGOS at the end of its mission.

A version of this listening float, the Rafts (Sofar spelled backward) float, is currently undergoing trials in the Gulf Stream. It is tethered to moored Sofar floats, one of them south of Cape Hatteras and the other on the northern slope of the Bowditch seamount (Bermuda). Real-time tracking is obviously not possible. Rafts floats are also restricted to somewhat shorter tracking ranges than the Sofar floats, because, owing to their small size and weight, the floats cannot carry a vertical string of hydrophones, which would improve acoustic reception in the horizontal.

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The Rafts float is an outgrowth of the development of the deep drifter, which is the same instrument minus the acoustic listening system. The deep drifter is intended to be used in clusters to obtain accurate estimates of subsurface and abyssal mean flows by ensemble averaging. The argument is simple: Continuous tracking of a float, like a continuous record from a current meter, does not improve statistical confidence of the record mean if it is not long compared to the gravest wave-containing frequencies. Since these are often of the order of a year we will be told.

The way to defeat this is of course by making many independent observations, but this is expensive; hence, a need for a simple, inexpensive drifter. When used in clusters they provide an ensemble of displacement vectors, each one a time integral of Lagrangian motion. Further, the spread of the ensemble of drift vectors provides valuable information on the dispersal properties of the field. The paucity, if not complete lack, of information on mean flows and dispersion in much of the world oceans is well known.

Indeed, with the ready availability of sophisticated yet low-powered microprocessors, one can foresee the development of a variety of "intelligent" drifters designed to monitor the internal wave field, chemical changes due to isopicnic mixing, in listen to and observe the local ecosystem. Days, weeks, or months later they can surface and report their findings; these can then be related to the large-scale processes within which they were embedded.

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and the crustal chemistry of representative seafloor, *Hart and Staudigel*, 1982; *Thompson*, 1984. This approach is bearing fruit, but has a limited applicability because of the limited availability of samples taken within the oceanic crust.

To consider these problems, the University of Rhode Island's Graduate School of Oceanography recently hosted a 1-day symposium, under the auspices of the Norman Winkins Lecture Series, on the topic, "Quantifying Submarine Hydrothermal Fluxes: Evidence From Different Perspectives." The lectures of the seven speakers were discussed by members of the audience from URI and her sister institutions in New York and New England.

Norman Sleep (Stanford) and William Jenkins (WHOI) discussed constraints on the axial heat flux from thermal modeling and the oceanic He isotope distribution, respectively. Sleep estimated the maximum axial convective heat flux as 2×10^{19} cal per year (determined from the product of the total crustal generation rate and the latent sensible heat loss per gram of crust) [Sleep et al., 1984]. He

estimated hydrothermal fluxes may be estimated from the crustal generation rate (determined from detailed studies of a few DSDP holes), and hydrothermal fluxes may be estimated from the crustal generation rate (determined from the product of the total crustal generation rate and the latent sensible heat loss per gram of crust) [Sleep et al., 1984]. He

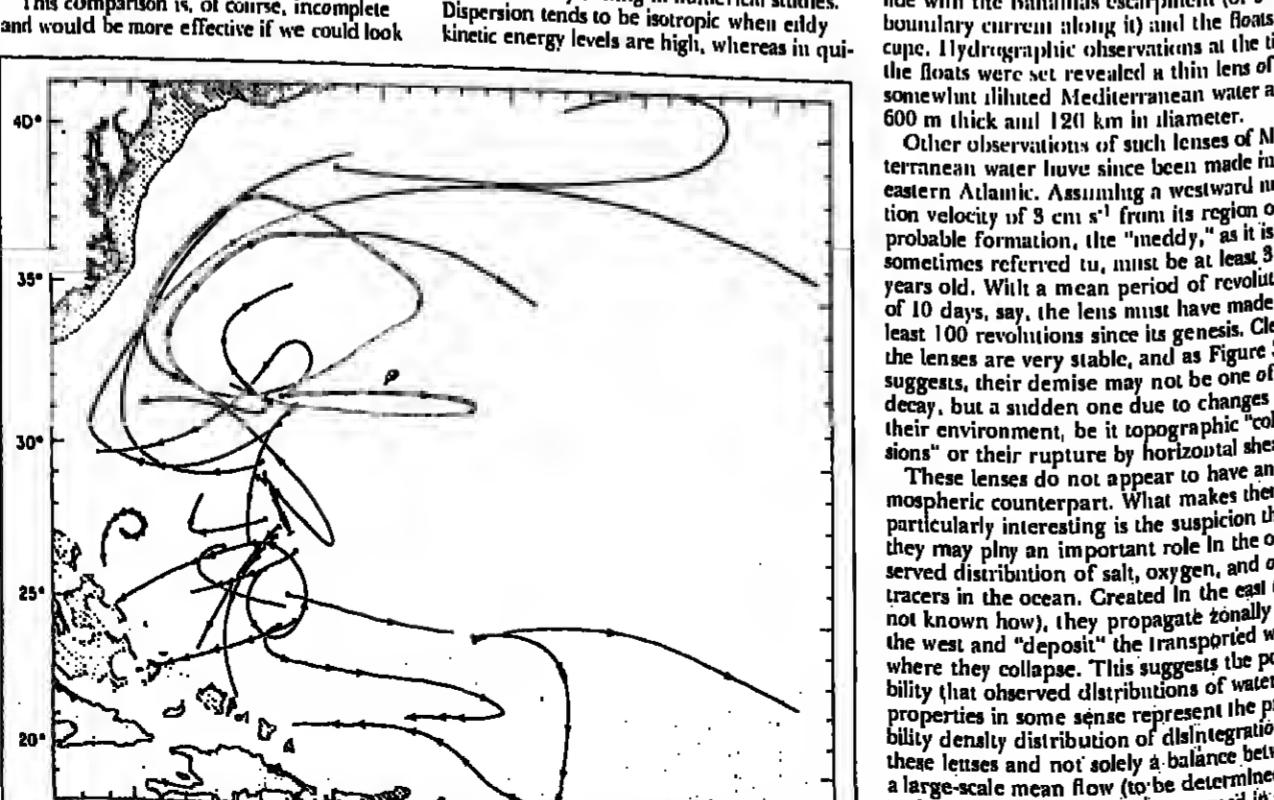


Fig. 4b. Spaghetti plot of smoothed trajectories of Sofar floats at 700 m. Arrows are 100 m apart. Note the high velocity of floats caught in the Gulf Stream (from chapter 4, Rob-
inson [1983], reprinted with permission, Springer-Verlag, New York).

Meeting Report

Quantifying Submarine Hydrothermal Fluxes

Many oceanographers believe that the chemical fluxes associated with deep sea hydrothermal processes are large and geochemically important, but quantifying these fluxes is proving difficult. Seawater-basalt exchange takes place in high-temperature hydrothermal systems at the very axis of seafloor spreading, as observed at the Galapagos Spreading Center [Cortes et al., 1979], and the East Pacific Rise at 15°N and 21°N [Murchie et al., 1982; RISE Project Group, 1980]. On the ridge flanks, the opposite situation obtains. The convective heat flux is known to be about 5×10^{19} cal per year [Anderson et al., 1977; Williams and Von Herzen, 1974], but almost nothing is known of the composition of the reacted seawater.

The alternative method of constraining hydrothermal fluxes comes from the complementary approach of studying crustal chemistry. The composition of unaltered crustal rocks provides information on the fluid composition and the fluid-rock reactions have been estimated in two ways. One involves using the heat balance to estimate the rate at which hydrothermal solution exit the crust, and taking the product of this number and change in chemical concentrations to get chemical fluxes. The composition of

News

No Olivine in the Mantle?

Perhaps the most impressive factors in D. L. Anderson's analysis of new physical models of the earth are contributions from the numerous disciplines of modern geophysics, including 3-dimensional seismicological observations, high-pressure experiments, highly precise isotope analyses, and studies of other solar system bodies [Science, 223, pp. 547-555, 1984].

The results? In short, there are the "ins" and the "outs." For example, the basalt-eclogite transition is back in fashion, whereas the notion of an olivine-rich deep mantle assemblage is no longer in fashion. This analogy is not to be construed as any return to old, pre-plate-tectonic concepts. Modern research, in the purest sense, is forcing "a reexamination of some long-held assumptions."

Anderson would not only ask to have the concept of the basalt-eclogite transition be revisited as a dominant crust-mantle parameter, but he provides insight to his suspicion of the validity of the olivine-spinel phase change and other olivine-related transitions as important boundaries in the transition zone. Thermal expansion and other thermally derived processes in the mantle (i.e., a hot, low-velocity zone) are suspect as well. So, therefore, the olivine-spinel transition is "out," as is the concept of a partial-melt, spherical shell, low-velocity zone from which basalts could be derived. Instead, "the buoyancy differential that drives mantle convection is provided by partial melting and the basalt-eclogite phase change rather than thermal expansion" and "the large density changes associated with phase changes and melting in the basalt-eclogite system may drive convection and be responsible for the chemical stratification of the mantle and the long-term isolation of geochemical reservoirs." The result is that an olivine-rich mantle concept would not be compatible.

Anderson's synthesis of observational and experimental data, trace element analyses, and the approximations and model functions required to fill the gaps of knowledge is a courageous, and, of course, controversial, attempt toward taking an imaginative look at all approaches to deriving a meaningful earth model. It may be argued that the new interpretations of this model are no better than those existing, because many of the advances in seismology and experimental research on which the model is based are too new. Considerably more data are needed to justify many of Anderson's conclusions, and some large knowledge gaps will not be filled soon. Anderson cannot be faulted, however, for lack of imagination nor for creating a set of ideas presented in a scholarly way. Anderson's model should stimulate a strong response; the response may be in the form of obtaining the needed data.—PMB

Radio Telescope Center Selected

Socorro, N. Mex., will be home for the operations center for the Very Long Baseline Array (VLBA) network of radio telescopes. The National Radio Astronomy Observatory (NRAO) selected Socorro because of its proximity to the Very Large Array (VLA), an existing system of 27 radio telescopes and will allow combined operation of the VLBA and the VLA. In addition, two of the proposed VLBA antennas will be nearby. With the proposed array of 10 radio telescopes—from Puerto Rico to Hawaii—astronomers will be able to probe the universe with a resolution 1000 times greater than any existing radio or optical telescope and 100 times that of the future Hubble Space Telescope.

The VLBA will be operated by NRAO as a national facility. NRAO is operated by Associated Universities, Inc., a consortium of nine member universities under contract with the National Science Foundation. The proposed funding increase for VLBA for fiscal 1985 (up 82.1% to \$35.1 million) would go for construction of the array (Eos, February 14, 1984, p. 49).

Acid Rain Trends Summarized

In the northeastern United States, the acidity of precipitation has changed little in recent years, although the acidity is increasing in other regions. That's the latest word from a comprehensive review by the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) of more than 200 published reports of acid rain research from the past 30 years. The report contributes to the controversy over whether increased sulfur emissions from Midwestern powerplants increase the acidity of precipitation in the Northeast.

"When the results of the many individual studies are combined, they show that acidification of precipitation in the Northeast-

which has the most damaging level of acidity on a regional basis, occurred primarily before the mid-1950's and has been largely stabilized since the mid-1960's," said John T. Turk, a research hydrologist at the USGS Denver office and author of the 18-page summary report.

Turk concluded that surface waters in lakes and streams in the Northeast follow a pattern of acidification similar to that of precipitation. The acidification of surface waters occurred before the mid-to-late 1960's; since then, some waters have not acidified further, and other streams show a slight recovery.

Trends in the acidity of precipitation in the southeastern and western parts of the country are far less certain. In the southeastern United States, the available data show that precipitation is more acidic than would be expected for sites unaffected by manmade emissions.

Turk said, "In addition, a comparison of recent precipitation data with the meager historical data suggests an increase in acidification of precipitation since the 1950's." Turk found, however, that most of the available data are ambiguous as to whether acidification of surface water has occurred in the southeast.

Copies of *An Evaluation of Trends in the Acidification of Surface Water in North America* (USGS Water Supply Paper 2249) are available for \$2.75 each from the Branch of Distribution, Text Products Section, USGS, 604 S. Pickett St., Alexandria, VA 22304.

In Congress

Upcoming Hearings

The following hearings have been tentatively scheduled for the coming weeks by the Senate. Dates and times should be verified with the committee or subcommittee holding the hearing or markup; all offices on Capitol Hill may be reached by telephoning 202-224-3211.

March 7, March 19, March 14: Clean Air Act (P.L. 95-95) amendments (S. 768) markup by the Senate Environment and Public Works Committee, Dirksen Building, Room SD-106, 10 A.M.

March 19: National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration fiscal 1985 budget hearings by the Commerce, Justice, State, Judiciary, and Related Agencies Subcommittee of the Senate Appropriations Committee, Capitol, Room S-146, 2 P.M.—PMB

Geophysical Events

Volcanic Events

Campi Flegrei (Italy): Uplift and seismicity in the caldera since mid 1982. Etna (Sicily): Incandescent tephra from central crater; seismicity.

Kilauea (Hawaii): 13th-15th major phases of East Rift Zone eruption include lava fountains to 300 m and temperatures to 1147°C. Mt. St. Helens (Washington): Deformation and seismicity, then new lobe. Veniaminof (Alaska): lava fountains and flow continue.

Pavlof (Alaska): Plumes on satellite imagery harmonic tremor.

Piton de la Fournaise (Réunion Is.): Second phase of lava emission.

Sakurajima (Japan): 1983 explosions and ash falls subsided.

Kusatsu-Shirane (Japan): 1983 activity summarized.

Rabaul (New Britain): Marked increase in unrest.

Manam (Bismarck Sea): Strombolian activity; explosion cloud to 3.5 km.

Langila (New Britain): Vulcanian explosions; ashfalls on coast.

Bagana (Solomon Islands): Two active lava flows.

Erebus (Antarctica): Seismicity normal; SO₂ flux measured.

Asturias Effects: El Chichón cloud persists; lava date to north pole.

Campi Flegrei, S. Italy (40.83°N, 14.14°E).

The following report is from Giuseppe Luongo, Roberto Scandone, and Franco Barberi: "Campi Flegrei (Phlegraean Fields) is a large caldera some 12–14 km across, located roughly 25 km W of Vesuvius and 15 km WSW of the city of Naples. The caldera formed after a huge eruption 35,000 years ago that produced 80 km³ of dense rock. Several other eruptions of decreasing intensity have occurred since then. In the past 10,000 years at least 22 different centers are recognizable. The last eruption occurred in 1888.

"Campi Flegrei has been the site of slow vertical movements since at least Roman times. A slow subsidence had occurred since the last eruption in 1888. An uplift that was observed in 1970 continued until 1972 without significant seismic activity. The inferred maximum uplift with respect to previous leveling was 170 cm. Slow oscillations of the

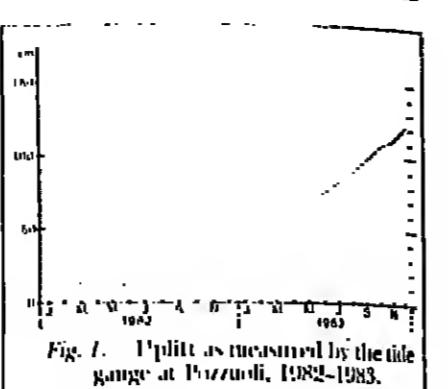


Fig. 1. Uplift as measured by the tide gauge at Pozzuoli, 1982–1983.

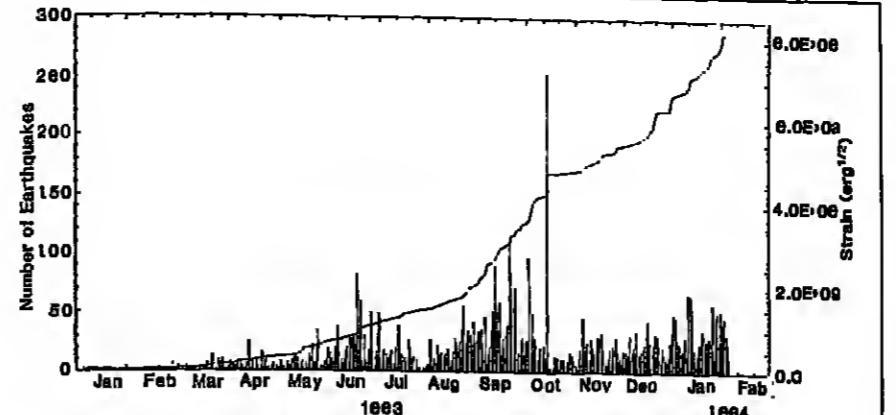


Fig. 2. Daily number of earthquakes at Campi Flegrei (vertical lines) and cumulative strain release (curve), January 1983 to January 1984.

authorities in order to minimize the social consequences of evacuating people from their residences. The new settlement is relatively safe from a seismic point of view but is not safe from a maximum probable volcanic event.

"In November 1982, moderate seismic activity was observed by the permanent seismic network, which has been operating since 1972. The level of activity was slightly above the microseismic activity in the area. In January 1983, public officials were notified of the anomalous trend of the phenomenon and of the possibility of an increasing seismic and volcanic hazard. In March a distinct increase in seismic activity was observed with the first magnitude 3 earthquake. Since then, ground uplift has continued with a velocity that reached 5 mm per day during October. After October, oscillations in the rate of uplift were observed, with a range between 1 and 4 mm per day. The seismic activity increased following a trend similar to that of the uplift velocity (Figure 2). A magnitude 4 earthquake occurred on October 4, 1983, and its epicenter was in the Solfatara area. A low correlation seems to exist between the velocity of uplift and the seismic activity. The more energetic earthquakes seem to coincide with the higher rates of uplift (1–3 mm per day). The shallow character of the seismic activity does not give any evidence of a zone of anomalous propagation of S waves.

"Since April 1983, radon measurements have been made in water wells located in the

Correction

On p. 561 of the Feb. 21, 1984, issue of Eos

the paragraph in column 2 under *Other Awards* headed "Robert E. Horton Medal"

should have appeared at the bottom of column 1, just before the section headed "Robert E. Horton Research Grant."

area. The data are still too preliminary to infer any model. We await a prolonged period of measurements to infer what may be the seasonal trend. Temperatures of the Solfatara fumaroles are also continuously monitored. No significant change has been detected. Gas monitoring of the fumaroles of Solfatara is carried out by several teams from the universities of Palermo, Pisa, and Florence, both by continuous measurement and by periodic sampling. Preliminary data seem to indicate an increase in the energy flux supplied to the deep water table located at 1.2 km depth by the geothermal wells. Two detailed surveys of the helium content of the ground have been performed by a team from the University of Rome. Order of magnitude variations have been detected in a large area NW of the town of Pozzuoli."

"The permanent surveillance network operating in the area comprises measurements of ground deformation and seismic activity,

which is a summary of *SEAN Bulletin*, 9(1), January 31, 1984, a publication of the Smithsonian Institution's Scientific Event Alert Network. The entire Rabaul article is included; the Campi Flegrei and earthquake reports are excerpts. The complete bulletin is available in the microfiche edition of Eos as a microfiche supplement or as a paper reprint. For the microfiche, order document E94-002 at \$2.00 (U.S.) from AGU Fulfillment, 2009 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. For the paper reprint, order *SEAN Bulletin* (giving volume and issue numbers and issue date) through AGU Separates at the above address; the price is \$3.50 for one copy of each issue number; for those who do not have a deposit account, \$2 for those who do; additional copies of each issue number are \$1. Subscriptions to *SEAN Bulletin* are available from AGU Fulfillment at the above address; the price is \$18 for 12 monthly issues mailed to a U.S. address; \$28 for mailed elsewhere, and must be prepaid.

For the overall distribution of earthquakes in January was similar to that in December, with high concentrations on the NE (Great Harbour) and W (Keravia Bay) sides of the harbor. Local concentrations of events also occurred along the Rapindik NE-SW fault line after the seismic crisis on January 15.

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Books

Negev: Land, Water, and Life in a Desert Environment

Daniel Hillel, Praeger, New York, xx + 270 pp., 1982, \$32.95.

Reviewed by William Bock

In view of the continuing increased concern about the extreme fragility of deserts and desert margins, *Negev* provides a timely discussion of land-use practices compatible with the often conflicting goals of preservation and development. The success of agricultural and hydrological experiments in the Negev desert of Israel offers hope to the large percentage of the world's population that lives with an unacceptably low quality of life in desert margins. Deserts are the one remaining type of open space that, with proper use, has the potential for alleviating the misery often associated with expanding population.

This extremely well written, entertaining book contains flashes of humor. It reads like a novel and is to a large extent autobiographical. The author has the uncommon talent to weave anecdotes into scientific facts and interpretation. The semitechnical style of writing, with minimal references, and the scrapbook nature of the photographs add readability and poignancy to the book. The first part (66 pages) is a perceptive description of the ecology of deserts that includes discussions of water, soil, vegetation, ecosystem, animals, and man's relation to the desert. The second part of the book relies heavily on the author's scientific work and personal experiences that are used to describe these elements within the context of the Negev, somewhat as a case study but, perhaps, more as a microcosm of desert worldwide.

Another fascinating example of the relationship between archeology and hydrology, in addition to the author's comments on reconstruction and importance of the cisterns, is the explanation of the countless heaps, mounds, and arials of gravel found on many hillsides covering scores of square kilometers that are commonly arranged to form regular geometric patterns. Previous speculations were (1) that the gravel mounds supported grapevines rooted under them and that the heat emission from the dark gravel hastened the ripening of the grapes; (2) that the gravel mounds were "aerial wells" designed to condense dew during the night to irrigate the roots of the grapevines; and (3) that the mounds were built to increase the rate of erosion from the hillsides to hasten the deposition of soil in the bottom-land terraces.

Daniel Hillel, the internationally recognized soil physicist, was one of the original 12 founders of the pioneer settlement of Kibbutz Sdeh-Boker in 1951. Much of their early work was to study the methodology that early civilizations used to obtain water, to repeat their techniques, and to attempt to improve them. The author develops a strong archeological and historical theme about use of water from the time of the earliest people of the Negev up to the present, sophisticated techniques of water management.

The main guide that he and his colleagues had for the Negev in the early days were the Bible and *The Wilderness of Zin* written by two British archeologists, C. L. Wooley, and T. E. Lawrence, the latter who was to become the famed "Lawrence of Arabia." Nelson Glueck,

and monitoring of gas content and temperatures of fumaroles. Vertical ground deformation is measured by a repeated leveling of a permanent network and is also checked daily by a tide gauge in Pozzuoli harbor. The permanent seismic network operating in the area (Figure 3) is composed of 22 vertical seismometers, 15 of which are cable connected to a central point in Naples. A seismic explosion campaign has been planned in the Gulf of Pozzuoli to provide information on the deeper structure of the area. In cooperation with University of Wisconsin seismologists, a temporary network of 10 three-component stations with high dynamic range has been deployed in the area and will operate for some months.

Information contacts: Giuseppe Luongo and Roberto Scandone, Osservatorio Vesuviano, Largo S. Marcellino 10, 80138 Napoli, Italy; Franco Barberi, Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra, Via S. Maria 55, Pisa, Italy.

Rabaul Caldera, New Britain Island, Papua New Guinea (4.27°S, 152.20°E).

This report is from P. Lowenstein: "There was a marked increase in the amount of unrest in Rabaul Caldera during January, with a total of 8572 volcanic earthquakes recorded, an increase of 1255 over the December total (see last month's Bulletin)."

"A major seismic crisis took place on January 15 when 942 earthquakes occurred, including several strongly felt events. The maximum magnitude earthquake (ML 4.0) was accompanied by underground rumbling sounds. This crisis was accompanied by a maximum tilt change of 32.5 microradians at Rapindik tilt station and a lateral intrusion of about 0.3 × 100 m² of magma at a depth of 0.9–1.1 km. This resulted in a shift of the center of maximum uplift of about 1 km to the NW of its previous location, bringing it closer to Rapindik than to Tavurvur.

"The overall distribution of earthquakes in January was similar to that in December, with high concentrations on the NE (Great Harbour) and W (Keravia Bay) sides of the harbor. Local concentrations of events also occurred along the Rapindik NE-SW fault line after the seismic crisis on January 15.

"Steady inflation of the Keravia Bay and Great Harbour magma reservoirs continued throughout the month. The lateral intrusion of magma under Great Harbour resulted in a maximum uplift of 6 cm in Great Harbour and a vertical displacement of 3 cm along the Rapindik Fault.

"As a result of the increased activity in January, a warning was issued to the authorities to the effect that the eruption, which was previously thought to be only a possibility when the stage 2 volcanic alert was declared on October 29, was now much more likely to occur within the next few months."

Information contact: P. Lowenstein, Principal Government Volcanologist, Rabaul Observatory, P.O. Box 386, Rabaul, Papua New Guinea.

Earthquakes

Information contacts: National Earthquake Information Service, U.S. Geological Survey, Suite 967, Denver Federal Center, Box 25046, Denver, CO 80225.

Meteoritic Events

Fireballs: Austria (2); Austria-Czechoslovakia; N Central USA—S Central Canada; Florida, Pennsylvania—New Jersey, USA

This is a summary of *SEAN Bulletin*, 9(1), January 31, 1984, a publication of the Smithsonian Institution's Scientific Event Alert Network. The entire Rabaul article is included; the Campi Flegrei and earthquake reports are excerpts. The complete bulletin is available in the microfiche edition of Eos as a microfiche supplement or as a paper reprint. For the microfiche, order document E94-002 at \$2.00 (U.S.) from AGU Fulfillment, 2009 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. For the paper reprint, order *SEAN Bulletin* (giving volume and issue numbers and issue date) through AGU Separates at the above address; the price is \$3.50 for one copy of each issue number; for those who do not have a deposit account, \$2 for those who do; additional

Article (cont. from p. 81)

swell plus wind waves in fully developed seas. Monthly global maps of wind, significant wave height, and minimum swell from Seasat show not only the expected zonal patterns due to the trade winds and other major wind systems but also wind and wave features on scales as small as 1000 km. Winds and sea states were highest in the Southern Ocean, and the local maximum migrated eastward from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean and finally into the Pacific during the summer of 1978. Using successive 3-day maps, swell fields have been tracked from their initial formation in the Southern Ocean northward through the Pacific toward North America (Figure 2).

Amplitudes and phases of ocean tidal components can be recovered with satellite altimeter data. The amplitude and phase of the M₂ tide in the Indian Ocean were obtained from a 2-dimensional space-time least-squares harmonic analysis of the last month of the collinear Seasat data, Figure 3. There are four interacting amphidromic points surrounding a large area of maximum amplitude and minimum phase. This solution shows an enhancement of 10 to 20 cm in the maximum amplitude in the middle of the ocean compared with most models. Comparisons with the Schwiderski model indicate a shift northward for the amphidromic point near Australia and a southward shift for the near Madagascar.

Ocean Circulation and Variability

Mesoscale eddies (scales of 50 to several hundred kilometers) occur in all oceans and are responsible for much of the horizontal mixing. The most intense eddies are associated with western boundary currents and other concentrated flows. Eddies may alter the amplitude of the sea surface by as much as 1 m. The meandering of intense currents, which generate many of the eddies, is considered part of the total eddy field.

Many of the altimetric techniques developed for observing sea height variability due to eddies are independent of orbit and geoid error. The method of collinear differences can be used in the last 25 days of the Seasat mission when the ground track was recorded within 2 km every 3 days. Mesoscale variability can be observed in those repeated profiles since the geoid is constant in time. Meandering currents and migrating eddies appear as wave-like signals propagating through the altimeter profiles. A global map of mesoscale variability compiled from all the Seasat collinear data (cover) shows the largest variability associated with five major current systems: the Gulf Stream, Kuroshio, Agulhas, Antarctic Circumpolar, and the Falkland/Brazil Current. As expected, there is a marked contrast between high energy in the western parts of ocean basins and low energy in the east. Several areas such as the Eastern Pacific and South Atlantic are remarkably quiet with rms variability of only 1-2 cm. Because of the existence of these vast, low-energy regions, the North Equatorial Current system in both the Pacific and Atlantic appear as zonal variability maxima. The relationship of this variability to bottom topography in the Southern Ocean can be interpreted in a manner consistent with theoretical concepts. For example, the generation of anticyclonic eddies is suggested downstream of the Macquarie Ridge.

Using this collinear data set, the wavenumber spectra of mesoscale variability were found to be a function of energy level. In

high-energy areas close to major current systems, most of the energy is at wavelengths greater than 250 km. The spectrum follows a k^2 dependence as predicted by geographic turbulence theory. In low-energy areas, the spectrum follows a k^4 dependence from 100 to 1000 km, not significantly different from predictions of an atmospheric forcing model.

The collinear method can also be applied in the GEOS-3 altimeter data in the western North Atlantic where the data are particularly dense. Eddy kinetic energy computed from 5.5 years of GEOS-3 data (Figure 4) shows maxima of 1000-2000 $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ in the Loop Current and Gulf Stream meander and ring region with minimum values of approximately 200 $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ toward mid-ocean, consistent with recent results from satellite-tracked drifting buoys. A significant difference between the altimetric map and those derived previously from ship drift data is the absence of high variability in the Gulf Stream along the coast. This graphically demonstrates that the altimeter is able to determine the energy associated with eddy motions (temporal variability) uncontaminated by contributions from strong horizontal gradients (spatial variability).

Alternatively, the gravitational signal can be removed directly by subtracting a detailed geoid model, such as the 5' x 5' GSF gravimetric geoid for the western North Atlantic. Thus, the Gulf Stream and its rings can be observed in individual passes of altimeter data, and near-synoptic maps of the Gulf Stream can be produced. Similarly, the geoid can be removed from a regional surface computed from a grid of altimeter data. This application was demonstrated using only two weeks of Seasat altimeter data. The resulting residual maps show the 1-m dynamic height change of the Gulf Stream and several warm and cold core rings. This technique could be used during the GEOSAT mission to monitor monthly the Gulf Stream system. A final method for eddy detection is to use a long-term altimeter surface as a reference to locate ring anomalies in individual profiles. A mean sea surface generated from 5.5 years of GEOS-3 data plus 3 months of Seasat data has been successfully used for locating cold core eddies in the Sargasso Sea.

Several groups have addressed the problem of determining global ocean circulation using existing altimeter data and global geoid models. Although present geoid models are known to be relatively inaccurate at short and intermediate wavelengths (a few hundred to a few thousand kilometers), the longer wavelengths are very well determined from tracking of numerous earth-orbiting satellites. Recent Goddard Earth Models (such as GEM-L2 and PGS-S4) are probably accurate to 10 cm at wavelengths greater than 10,000 km. Since this is comparable to the scale of most ocean basins, these geoid models might be used to determine the gyre-scale fluxes.

In the initial computation of the mean altimeter surface, the radial orbit error (which for Seasat and GEOS-3 is of the order of 1 m), must be treated. However, solutions have been generated which reproduce some features of dynamic topography maps based upon hydrographic data. Each one treats the orbit error in a different way. In the first case a global altimetric surface was computed from 1.5 years of GEOS-3 data combined with the 3-month Seasat data set. With such a large quantity of altimeter data over a relatively long period, much of the radial error was probably removed through averaging. When this surface is difference with the PGS-S4 geoid, a model developed especially for Seasat, gyre-scale features with the proper sense of flow are obtained (Figure 5). A global surface was also computed from only three



Fig. 4. Eddy kinetic energy computed from GEOS-3 altimeter over a period of 3.5 years by the collinear method in the Gulf Stream region [Douglas et al., 1983].

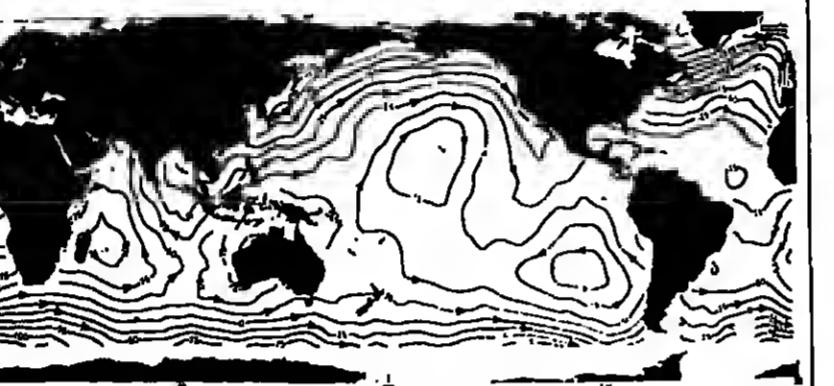


Fig. 5. Dynamic ocean topography generated from a long-term mean sea surface consisting of 1.5 years of GEOS-3 and three months of Seasat altimeter data for the Gulf Stream region. A global geoid model (PGS-S4) was subtracted from the altimetric surface to remove the contribution of gravity gradients [Cheney and Marsh, 1982].

days of Seasat altimeter data from which a Fourier series representation of the radial orbit error was removed through an analysis of crossover differences (where ascending and descending ground tracks intersect), together with the along-track altimeter data. A third surface was determined from a spherical harmonic analysis of the differences between the GEM-9 geoid and a 3-month Seasat altimeter surface of the Pacific. All three of these surfaces show similar gyre-scale features, a remarkable result considering the magnitude of the present altimetric and geodetic errors.

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This meeting report was contributed by Michael L. Bender, who is with the Graduate School of Oceanography, University of Rhode Island, Kingston, RI 02881.

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duces infiltration and causes runoff to be greater than that of an unsealed slope. This runoff enhancement caused by a decrease in permeability, known as "water harvesting" or "milking the hillside," obviously was understood by those who managed land and water in the ancient Negev. They could harvest perhaps not more than 25% of the seasonal rainfall. Modern technology can increase this percentage by sealing, water recycling, and stabilizing the soil cover. This source can be significant if one considers that 100 mm of rain on just 1 km² can produce 100,000 m³ (nearly 30 million gallons) of high-quality water.

This book is highly recommended to those readers who are interested in, or concerned with, deserts, people, or water. Fascination with the desert often borders on mysticism for those who know and love it. Perhaps our spiritual origins are in the desert in the same sense that our physical origins are in the sea. Time spent in the desert may represent a return to spiritual beginnings, rejuvenating the soul in much the same manner that time spent at the sea, the locus of our physical origins, rejuvenates the mind and body. One basic philosophy of the author is expressed in these few words but the last page: "Let us respect and love the desert, and seek in life, not its rape or despoil it."

William Black is with the U.S. Geological Survey, Reston, VA 22092.



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 June 10-13. 60th Annual Meeting of the American Association of Petroleum Geologists (Geophysical Division), San Francisco, Calif. (John H. Vann, Dept. of Geophysics, California State Univ., Hayward, CA 94542; tel. 415-881-3193.) (June 31, 1983).
 June 11-15. Fifth European Conference on Environmental Pollution, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. (W. J. Veldkamp, P.O. Box 1770, Cornhill, Ontario N6J 5V7, Canada).
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 June 23-30. Petrov Conference, Melange of the Appalachians, Oregon, Newfoundland, Canada. (S. L. Stroh, Dept. of Earth Sciences, Univ. of Lethbridge, Lethbridge, Alberta, T1K 3M4, Canada; tel. 403-382-2770).
 June 24-28. International Conference on Imprecise Soil Behavior for Soil Design, Denver, Colo. (G. A. Johnson, Wood and Soil Consultants, 7001 E. Orchard Rd., Englewood, CO 80111; tel. 303-784-2770).
 June 24-30. 14th International Conference on Mathematical Geophysics, La Jolla, Calif. (J. T. Tanguay, P.O. Box 51, San 2007).
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tions for Climate Studies, Graz, Austria. Sponsors: World Climate Program, IS, Ruhrberg, Secretary, COSPAR Commission A, NCAR, Boulder, CO 80307; tel. 303-492-2730.) (Jan. 17, 1983).
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 June 11-15. Fifth European Conference on Environmental Pollution, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. (W. J. Veldkamp, P.O. Box 1770, Cornhill, Ontario N6J 5V7, Canada).
 June 11-15. Symposium on Critical Assessment of Forecasting in Western Water Resource Management, Seattle, Wash. Sponsors: AWRA and AGU. (G. R. Munro, President, Resource Planning Assoc., 1131 Lynd St., Seattle, WA 98109; tel. 206-282-2288.) (June 28, 1983).
 June 18-22, 1984. International Conference on Finite Elements in Water Resources, Burlington, Vt. Sponsors: Univ. of Vermont, AGU, (J. P. Laible, Dept. of Civil Engineering and Mechanical Engineering, Univ. of Vermont, Burlington, VT 05405; tel. 802-636-3300).
 June 19-21. Third International Conference on Nuclear Simulation and the Nonlinear Dynamics of the Nucleus, Groningen, The Netherlands. (Secretary MARIK B, P.O. Box 1955, 9000 BN Groningen, The Netherlands).
 June 23-30. Petrov Conference, Melange of the Appalachians, Oregon, Newfoundland, Canada. (S. L. Stroh, Dept. of Earth Sciences, Univ. of Lethbridge, Lethbridge, Alberta, T1K 3M4, Canada; tel. 403-382-2770).
 June 24-28. International Conference on Imprecise Soil Behavior for Soil Design, Denver, Colo. (G. A. Johnson, Wood and Soil Consultants, 7001 E. Orchard Rd., Englewood, CO 80111; tel. 303-784-2770).
 June 24-30. 14th International Conference on Mathematical Geophysics, La Jolla, Calif. (J. T. Tanguay, P.O. Box 51, San 2007).
 June 25-27. National Water Well Imprecise Symposium, Tulsa, Okla. (Richard G. Hart, State Science Board, 114028, National Academy of Sciences, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, DC 20008).
 June 25-July 7. Symposium on Space Observa-

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Jan. 7-12. 17th International Congress on Hydrogeology of Rocks of Low Permeability, Tucson, Ariz. Sponsors: International Association of Hydrogeologists, AGU, (F. S. Simpson, Dept. of Hydrogeology and Water Resources, College of Engineering, Univ. of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721; tel. 520-621-7892; or C. Odum, European Coordinator, Royal Aircraft Establishment, Farnborough, Hants, GU14 6TD, U.K.; tel. 0325-24461; ext. 20583.) (Sep. 8, 1983).
 Jan. 26-28, 1985. International Symposium on Deep Seismic Crust, Results from Reflection Seismology, Ithaca, N.Y. Sponsors: AGU, (R. S. Simpson, Dept. of Hydrogeology and Water Resources, College of Engineering, Univ. of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721; tel. 520-621-7892; or C. Odum, European Coordinator, Royal Aircraft Establishment, Farnborough, Hants, GU14 6TD, U.K.; tel. 0325-24461; ext. 20583.) (Sep. 8, 1983).
 Jan. 29-31. Quadrangular Ozone Symposium, Halkidiki, Greece. Sponsors: IAPM (International Ozone Commission (IOC), Commission of the European Communities, the Academy of Athens, and WMO, (Christina Darastrou, Conference Coordinator, Dept. of Atmospheric Sciences, Campl Univ., Ithaca, NY 14853; tel. 607-256-6411) (arxel: 937478).
 Jan. 2-5. Symposium on the Physics of the Magnetosphere-Ionosphere Connection, Crans, Austria. Sponsors: Committee on Space Research of ICSU, (R. E. Schmidt, ESR, P.O. Box 6013, Northern Arizona Univ., Flagstaff, AZ 86011.) (Nov. 15, 1983).
 Jan. 5-6. Second Symposium on Plasma Double Layers and Related Topics, Innsbruck, Austria. (R. Schrittwieser, Inst. for Theoretical Physics, Univ. of Innsbruck, 6020 Innsbruck, Austria; tel. 0512-310000; tel. 0512-310222; FRC 102).
 Jan. 9-13. International Symposium on Space Techniques for Cenodynamics, Szeged, Hungary. Sponsors: Hungarian Academy of Sciences and IAPCOS/SP. (János Komorník, Dept. of Geodynamics, Institute of Geodynamics, Univ. of Szeged, Szeged, Hungary; tel. 062-222-2222; tel. 062-222-2223; tel. 062-222-2224; tel. 062-222-2225; tel. 062-222-2226; tel. 062-222-2227; tel. 062-222-2228; tel. 062-222-2229; tel. 062-222-2230; tel. 062-222-2231; tel. 062-222-2232; tel. 062-222-2233; tel. 062-222-2234; tel. 062-222-2235; tel. 062-222-2236; tel. 062-222-2237; tel. 062-222-2238; tel. 062-222-2239; tel. 062-222-2240; tel. 062-222-2241; tel. 062-222-2242; tel. 062-222-2243; tel. 062-222-2244; tel. 062-222-2245; tel. 062-222-2246; tel. 062-222-2247; tel. 062-222-2248; tel. 062-222-2249; tel. 062-222-2250; tel. 062-222-2251; tel. 062-222-2252; tel. 062-222-2253; tel. 062-222-2254; tel. 062-222-2255; tel. 062-222-2256; tel. 062-222-2257; tel. 062-222-2258; tel. 062-222-2259; tel. 062-222-2260; tel. 062-222-2261; tel. 062-222-2262; tel. 062-222-2263; tel. 062-222-2264; tel. 062-222-2265; tel. 062-222-2266; tel. 062-222-2267; tel. 062-222-2268; tel. 062-222-2269; tel. 062-222-2270; tel. 062-222-2271; tel. 062-222-2272; tel. 062-222-2273; tel. 062-222-2274; tel. 062-222-2275; tel. 062-222-2276; tel. 062-222-2277; tel. 062-222-2278; tel. 062-222-2279; tel. 062-222-2280; tel. 062-222-2281; tel. 062-222-2282; tel. 062-222-2283; tel. 062-222-2284; tel. 062-222-2285; tel. 062-222-2286; tel. 062-222-2287; tel. 062-222-2288; tel. 062-222-2289; tel. 062-222-2290; tel. 062-222-2291; tel. 062-222-2292; tel. 062-222-2293; tel. 062-222-2294; tel. 062-222-2295; tel. 062-222-2296; tel. 062-222-2297; tel. 062-222-2298; tel. 062-222-2299; tel. 062-222-2200; tel. 062-222-2201; tel. 062-222-2202; tel. 062-222-2203; tel. 062-222-2204; tel. 062-222-2205; tel. 062-222-2206; tel. 062-222-2207; tel. 062-222-2208; tel. 062-222-2209; tel. 062-222-2210; tel. 062-222-2211; tel. 062-222-2212; tel. 062-222-2213; tel. 062-222-2214; tel. 062-222-2215; tel. 062-222-2216; tel. 062-222-2217; tel. 062-222-2218; tel. 062-222-2219; tel. 062-222-2220; tel. 062-222-2221; tel. 062-222-2222; tel. 062-222-2223; tel. 062-222-2224; tel. 062-222-2225; tel. 062-222-2226; tel. 062-222-2227; tel. 062-222-2228; tel. 062-222-2229; tel. 062-222-2230; tel. 062-222-2231; tel. 062-222-2232; tel. 062-222-2233; tel. 062-222-2234; tel. 062-222-2235; tel. 062-222-2236; tel. 062-222-2237; tel. 062-222-2238; tel. 062-222-2239; tel. 062-222-2240; tel. 062-222-2241; tel. 062-222-2242; tel. 062-222-2243; tel. 062-222-2244; tel. 062-222-2245; tel. 062-222-2246; tel. 062-222-2247; tel. 062-222-2248; tel. 062-222-2249; tel. 062-222-2250; tel. 062-222-2251; tel. 062-222-2252; tel. 062-222-2253; tel. 062-222-2254; tel. 062-222-2255; tel. 062-222-2256; tel. 062-222-2257; tel. 062-222-2258; tel. 062-222-2259; tel. 062-222-2260; tel. 062-222-2261; tel. 062-222-2262; tel. 062-222-2263; tel. 062-222-2264; tel. 062-222-2265; tel. 062-222-2266; tel. 062-222-2267; tel. 062-222-2268; tel. 062-222-2269; tel. 062-222-2270; tel. 062-222-2271; tel. 062-222-2272; tel. 062-222-2273; tel. 062-222-2274; tel. 062-222-2275; tel. 062-222-2276; tel. 062-222-2277; tel. 062-222-2278; tel. 062-222-2279; tel. 062-222-2280; tel. 062-222-2281; tel. 062-222-2282; tel. 062-222-2283; tel. 062-222-2284; tel. 062-222-2285; tel. 062-222-2286; tel. 062-222-2287; tel. 062-222-2288; tel. 062-222-2289; tel. 062-222-2290; tel. 062-222-2291; tel. 062-222-2292; tel. 062-222-2293; tel. 062-222-2294; tel. 062-222-2295; tel. 062-222-2296; tel. 062-222-2297; tel. 062-222-2298; tel. 062-222-2299; tel. 062-222-2200; tel. 062-222-2201; tel. 062-222-2202; tel. 062-222-2203; tel. 062-222-2204; tel. 062-222-2205; tel. 062-222-2206; tel. 062-222-2207; tel. 062-222-2208; tel. 062-222-2209; tel. 062-222-2210; tel. 062-222-2211; tel. 062-222-2212; tel. 062-222-2213; tel. 062-222-2214; tel. 062-222-2215; tel. 062-222-2216; tel. 062-222-2217; tel. 062-222-2218; tel. 062-222-2219; tel. 062-222-2220; tel. 062-222-2221; tel. 062-222-2222; tel. 062-222-2223; tel. 062-222-2224; tel. 062-222-2225; tel. 062-222-2226; tel. 062-222-2227; tel. 062-222-2228; tel. 062-222-2229; tel. 062-222-2230; tel. 062-222-2231; tel. 062-222-2232; tel. 062-222-2233; tel. 062-222-2234; tel. 062-222-2235

